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REPERTORY GRID ANALYSIS IN GROUP SETTINGS TO ELICIT SALIENT DESTINATION IMAGE ATTRIBUTES

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ABSTRACT

Although Repertory Grid Analysis (RGA) was originally developed in clinical psychology, the technique has been adapted for use in a diverse range of fields. However, the technique is rarely addressed in marketing research texts and has not been fully utilised in the tourism literature. Also, RGA applications have predominantly been reported in the form of personal interviews. The article reports the first trial of RGA to elicit salient destination image attributes using group settings. This is a replication study, which is compared to a previous application of the technique that involved personal interviews. A key disadvantage of the group settings was the inability to probe participants. Nevertheless, it is suggested the approach provides researchers both an efficient and effective exploratory means for understanding how travellers differentiate a

competitive set of destinations. This technique is particularly useful in the development of a structured questionnaire to operationalise destination image.

KEYWORDS

Destination image, Repertory grid analysis (RGA), travel context, short breaks

INTRODUCTION

In the competitive travel market place the images held of a place in the minds of consumers are as important as its tangible features (Hunt, 1975). Much of the work of destination marketers is thus taken up with the planning and implementation of image building campaigns. An understanding of images held in key markets is critical, both in the design of promotional campaigns and for the ensuing performance metrics. Not surprisingly then, destination image has been the most popular topic of research in the tourism literature since the field began in the early 1970s, with extensive reviews reported by Chon (1990), Echtner and Ritchie (1991), Gallarza *et al.* (2002), and Pike (2002). While there is no consensus on how to operationalise the destination image concept, the most common method is by structured questionnaires that require participants to rate the destination across a list of attributes. There have been questions about the validity of such attribute lists, particularly if they have not been selected from a qualitative stage. One exploratory technique that appears ready made to identify the dimensions on which travellers differentiate destinations is Repertory Grid Analysis (RGA). The purpose of this article is to report the first trial of RGA using group settings to identify salient attributes for use in a structured destination image questionnaire.

Since destination preferences will vary according to the type of travel, the context of this study was narrowed to domestic short break holidays by car. Following White (2000), a short break has been defined as a non-business trip away from home of between one to five nights duration. While short breaks have emerged as one of the fastest growing travel segments in recent years, there has been a lack of research reported about short break holidays in Australasia. In particular, there is a need for more research into the attributes used by travellers to differentiate domestic short break destinations. The geographic market of interest in this article is Brisbane, the capital city of Queensland, Australia. Brisbane residents are literally spoilt by choice of contiguous short break destinations, with participants in a previous studied identifying over 100 top of mind destinations (see Pike, 2006). Pike (2003) previously used RGA to identify short break destination attributes in New Zealand, in a series of personal interviews. In what is a replication study, the efficacy of the group settings is therefore compared to the individual interviews, in terms of construct elicitation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Hunt's (1975) view that images held by potential travellers are so important in the destination selection process that they can affect the very viability of the destination has become an axiom in tourism marketing. However, there is no commonly agreed conceptualisation of the destination image construct. From a review of 15 studies of destination image from 1975 to 1990, Echtner and Ritchie (1991) suggested most definitions were vague, such as 'perceptions of an area'. Jenkins (1999) found the term destination image had been used in a number of different contexts, including perceptions held by individuals, stereotypes held by groups and images projected by destination marketers. The most commonly cited definition is that of Crompton (1979:19): "the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination". With this in mind, this research was interested in the conceptualisation of destination attractiveness proposed by Mayo and Jarvis (1981: 203), as a way of operationalising destination image. Following the work of Goodrich (1978) and Fishbein (1967), Mayo and Jarvis suggested destination attractiveness "has a

great deal to do with the specific benefits that are desired by travellers and the capability of the destination to deliver them". From this perspective it is important to gain an understanding of what attributes will be used by the consumer-traveller when differentiating destinations. While there is no common agreement on either the definition of destination image, and therefore how measurement should be operationalised, the most common method is a structured questionnaire requiring participants to rate the destination across a list of attributes. However, there has been criticism of the validity of such attribute lists, particularly when they have not been selected from qualitative research. It has been claimed that the attributes used in destination image surveys often appear to have been "chosen at random" (Pearce, 1982: 149). In this regard Dann (1996: 43) strongly supported the call for researchers "to bring the tourist back into their investigations". Pike's (2002) review of 143 destination image studies between 1973-2000 found the majority (114) used a structured questionnaire and that less than half had used a qualitative technique at any stage.

Qualitative methods in destination image studies have included: free descriptions (Reilly, 1990), Q-sort descriptions (Stringer, 1984), personal interviews (Crompton, 1979; Crompton & Duray, 1985; Goodrich, 1978; Illum & Schaeffer, 1995; Pizam et al., 1978; Waitt, 1996), and focus groups (Chen & Kersletter, 1999; Chon, Weaver & Kim, 1991; Driscoll & Lawson, 1990; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Haahti & Yavas, 1983; King, 1994; Mackay & Fesenmaier, 1997; Milman & Pizam, 1995). One method that is rarely addressed in marketing research texts and has been under-reported in the tourism literature is RGA.

RGA is a structured qualitative technique underpinned by Personal Construct Theory (PCT). Kelly's (1955) PCT viewed man as a scientist, whose ultimate aim was to predict and control his own world. At the core of PCT is constructive alternativism, which proposed that people have the creative capacity to interpret their environment, rather than simply react to it in a stimulus-response manner. We all construe the universe in different ways, and are open to reconstruction.

Our world is viewed through patterns that we individually create and attempt to fit over the environment. Kelly referred to these patterns, which allow us to chart a course through life, as personal constructs. Personal constructs have also been referred to as “dimensions of awareness” (Landfield & Leitner, 1980: 5), and “goggles for viewing the world” (Downs, 1976: 82). Kelly’s fundamental postulate was that “a person’s processes are psychologically channelized by the ways in which he anticipates events” (p. 46). We all have a repertoire of constructs that are continually being tested and altered, in an attempt to aid our predictive efforts.

To gain access to, and comprehend, the private world of individuals’ construct systems, Kelly (1955) developed RGA. The original form of the technique, which was interested in the elicitation of constructs, was termed the Role Construct Repertory Test (Bannister & Fransella, 1971). The technique was later developed as the Repertory Test and Repertory Grid to examine the hierarchy of relationships between the constructs elicited. It was the original purpose, of construct elicitation, that was of interest to this research, since the technique helps to identify how individuals differentiate a category of objects. However, in order to be consistent with wording used by other researchers, the term RGA has been used instead of Repertory Test.

While the international PCT research community is small (Botterill & Crompton, 1996; Jankowicz, 1987), RGA provides an effective alternative to other qualitative methods: "Its ideographic, humanistic and non-exploitive basis is consistent with the rationale of public participation" (Stringer, 1974: 33). The unified theory and technique has strong face validity due to the level of freedom the respondent has in making judgements (Downs, 1976; Smith & Leach, 1972). Although initially developed for use in clinical psychology, the technique has been applied in other fields. Stewart and Stewart (1981) for example demonstrated the use of RGA in a number of fields, including quality control, work motivation, managerial effectiveness and training evaluation. As shown in Table I, other applications have included a diverse range of topics.

(TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE)

Marketing researchers were the first industry sector outside of clinical psychology to apply the technique (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). RGA's usefulness to marketing researchers is that product descriptions are provided in the consumer's language. It has been proposed the method has been as important to market research as the development of the questionnaire (Frost & Braine, 1967). They suggested the following unique properties of scales derived from the method:

- They represent an exhaustive set.
- They are relevant to the subject matter.
- They are in the vocabulary of the consumer.
- The inarticulate may not otherwise be able to express them spontaneously.
- The constructs have dimensionality, capable of simultaneously categorising and discriminating between the objects under scrutiny.

RGA is almost ready made for the study of environmental images (Bowler & Warburton, 1986; Downs, 1976; Harrison & Sarre, 1971; Preston & Taylor, 1981). Preston and Taylor suggested Kelly would have approved of the extension of the technique from person to environment, since he regarded the theory as all encompassing in the way we view the world. Environment applications by geographers have included such topics as the perceptions of: recreational water resources (Bowler & Warburton, 1986), shopping centres (Hudson, 1974; Smith, 1989), residential choice (Preston & Taylor, 1981), and recreation trails (Allton & Lieber, 1983).

An individual's holiday goals are likely to be experiential (Botterill & Crompton, 1996), fitting Kelly's (1955, 1970) view of behaviour as an experiment. However, destination image applications (see Table II) of RGA have been rare.

(TABLE II ABOUT HERE)

In Kelly's field of clinical psychology, RGA was developed for application to individuals. However, Kelly (1955), Levy and Duggan (1956), and later Bannister and Fransella (1971) and Smith and Leach (1972) discussed the technique's potential for administering to groups. The rationale is that group responses can be refined since elicited personal constructs may bear close similarities, even though differing slightly in individual wording (Frost & Braine, 1967). With group studies, interviews have still generally been conducted on an individual basis, although the technique has also been applied to groups of around eight people (see Honey, 1979; Stewart & Stewart, 1981). No group settings of the technique were sourced in the destination image literature.

METHOD

Two key issues in the application of RGA are the selection of elements, and the elicitation of constructs.

Selection of elements

An element is the type of object that is the focus of the study. In this case the elements of interest were domestic holiday destinations within a comfortable drive of Brisbane. The number of elements used in RGA is an important consideration. Sampson (1972) found the number used by researchers generally ranged from eight to 30. In destination studies the number of elements has ranged from 6 (Botterill & Crompton, 1987) to 40 (Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993). Elements are either supplied by the researcher (see Pearce, 1982; Pike, 2003; Riley & Palmer, 1975; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993; Young, 1995) or elicited from the participants (see Botterill, 1989; Embacher & Buttle, 1989). Kelly (1955) suggested the elements used should be representative of those the subject would be likely to relate to in the context of interest. Nine elements were selected from a

previous study of the Brisbane short break market (see Pike, 2006) as representing the major destinations within a comfortable drive of Brisbane. Table III shows the responses to an unaided top of mind awareness question, by regional tourism organisation boundary. Each of the regions shown is represented in the list of elements: Byron Bay, Caloundra, Gold Coast, Hervey Bay, Montville/Maleny, Mooloolaba, Noosa, Stanthorpe, and Stradbroke Island. These places represent a mix of emerging and developed beach, island and hinterland destinations.

(TABLE III ABOUT HERE)

Eliciting constructs

Kelly (1955: 105) defined a personal construct as "a way in which things are construed as being alike and yet different from others". The minimum for any one construct is three elements, since constructs cannot be expressed unless involving at least two things that are alike in some way and one that is different. The statement expressed for the similarity/difference, is representative of a personal construct. While the number of different variations in the interview method is almost limitless (Frost & Braine, 1967), the most common form is the use of triad cards, where elements are presented to participants in sequential sets of three destinations, as used in the New Zealand study. It is important to recognise the large number of possible triad combinations for the number of elements being used. Burton and Nerlove (1976) provided the following formula for the number of triad combinations in a complete test, where every possible combination of elements is used: $n(n\text{-}1)(n\text{-}2)/6$, where n = number of elements. Using the formula, eight elements, for example, would require 56 triads, while 15 elements would necessitate 455 triads. While there are no fixed rules regarding the number of triads to be presented, Kelly found 40 sorts of 20 elements will have elicited virtually all constructs, with 20 elements producing as many constructs as 30 elements.

Burton and Nerlove (1976) assessed reliability of balanced incomplete block designs, which consist of a sample of the full set of triad combinations, and where all pairs of elements feature in the same number of triads. The number of triads required in a balanced incomplete block is determined by: $b = \lambda n(n-1)/6$, where b is the number of triads in a balanced incomplete block design, λ represents the number of triads in which each pair of elements appears, and n is the number of elements. Two further conditions are required: $rn=3b$ and $\lambda = 2r/n-1$, where r is the number of replications of each element. The full set of combinations for the nine elements in this research would have required 84 triads. Using the balanced incomplete block design formula, with $\lambda = 2$, the number of triad combinations was reduced to 24.

In qualitative research, sampling should achieve data redundancy. Due to a commonality of responses, no new constructs are usually elicited after 20-40 RGA interviews. In the New Zealand study, personal interviews were conducted with 25 individuals, and it was found that data redundancy was noticeable after around 15 interviews. Indeed the first two participants provided 50% of all statement themes generated by the sample. This supported the proposition that a small RGA sample is sufficient to reach redundancy (Downs 1976, Frost & Braine 1967, Young, 1995). In this project, a convenience sample comprising three groups was interviewed in Brisbane during June 2005. This generated a total of 24 useable responses, with an even gender ratio. The three group settings involved:

- 13 post-graduate market research students (two responses were later deemed non-useable)
- 8 staff of an advertising agency
- 5 staff of another advertising agency.

At each group setting participants were handed a self-complete form, with destinations listed in 24 sequential sets of three. Each destination randomly appeared eight times, with each pair of

elements featuring twice. The nine destinations were firstly listed in alphabetical order, and the triads were presented to participants in random order. Participants were introduced to the purpose of the interview and how the information would be used. Kelly's (1955: 222) original instruction, when presenting each triad, was: "In what *important way* are two of them alike but different from the third". A trial triad introduced participants to the technique, using car brands, following Embacher and Buttle (1989). Participants were advised that it did not matter if they had not previously visited any of the destinations. The reason for this is their perceptions of places were of interest. Consumers are thought to hold organic and induced images of destinations (Gunn, 1988). The organic image is developed through an individual's everyday assimilation of information, which may include a wide range of mediums, from school geography readings to mass media to actual visitation. The induced image is formed through the influence of tourism promotions directed by marketers. Both types of image may be present prior to any visitation. This instruction therefore enables consideration of actual images used in decision making. In an RGA analysis of museum attributes, Caldwell and Coshall (2002) argued the merits of this approach, with the proviso that participants are able to express an opinion of a place they had not visited. In general, participants appeared familiar with the nine destinations used, which was not surprising given their close proximity to Brisbane. The first combination was presented with the following question: *If you were considering a domestic short break holiday, using your car, in what important way are two of these destinations alike, and different to the third?* Participants were asked to circle the two similar destinations. A space was provided alongside each triad for participants to express their similarity/difference reasons. Participants were advised that they could list as many similarity/difference statements as they wanted for each triad, but once a statement was used it could not be repeated. Participants were also reassured that the interview was not a test.

RESULTS

While qualitative data is usually voluminous (Patton, 1990), an advantage of RGA is economy in data recording, due to the simplicity of responses required from participants. Indeed, responses to each triad may be as little as one or two words, and usually no more that a sentence. The recording system enables one researcher's results to be quickly understood by another reader, since "there is very little waffle" (Stewart & Stewart, 1981: 27). However, the technique can generate a substantial list of statements. For example, Young's (1995) 50 respondents, who were permitted to repeat similarities/differences, generated over 5,000 statements. When participants are not permitted to repeat statements, Frost and Braine (1967) proposed the number of responses would generally range from 10 to 30, with a mean of 18. The 25 participants in the New Zealand study generated a total of 567 statements, for a mean of 22. In this study the 24 participants generated a much smaller total of 277 statements for a mean of 12 per participant. In both studies the participants used a mean of 11 triads before running out of new similarity/difference statements.

The interpretation of qualitative data is a both a critical and creative process, with no fixed rules (Patton, 1990). In RGA studies there have been five methods of analysing data (Stewart & Stewart, 1981): frequency counts, content analysis, visual focussing, cluster analysis and Principal-components analysis. RGA studies in the tourism literature have generally not described in any detail how statements were synthesised into constructs (see for example Pearce, 1982; Tilic, 1978; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993). Young (1995) used content and frequency analyses to reduce data into 79 construct categories, and final selection of seven attributes. Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) summarised their data into 20 constructs. Embacher and Buttle (1989) used content analysis to reorder all respondents' constructs into 11 clusters. Tillic (in Stringer, 1984) produced 15 content categories, while Pearce (1982) produced 13 categories.

Following Fishbein's (1963) advice for categorising qualitative data, the elicited statements were grouped into themes, where there appeared to be commonality in wording. For example,

statements such as ‘beautiful beach’, ‘white sand’ and ‘better beaches’ were grouped into one theme. In this way the 277 statements were reduced on a spreadsheet to 14 attribute themes. While such a sorting process is subjective (Bowler & Warburton, 1986), of interest was the commonality of responses, rather than idiosyncratic statements. A co-researcher was engaged to verify the categorisation based on Guba’s (1978) recommendation that categories should feature internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity. In general, the co-researcher agreed with the attribute themes. The New Zealand study generated 17 attributes. A comparison between the two studies is shown in Table IV. To briefly summarise, the two studies used a similar number of participants, the same travel context and the same number of elements. Participants in both studies used on average the same number of triads.

(TABLE IV ABOUT HERE)

In Table V, a comparison with the attributes generated in this study (Column A) is made with those from the New Zealand study (Column B). The table also provides a comparison with the destination image literature identified in Pike’s (2002) review of 143 destination image studies. Column C lists the themes of attributes from the 39 studies that had concluded with determinant attributes and/or factors. The attributes are listed in order of popularity. The table clearly shows there are a number of similarities and differences. The key implication of this is that any use of the literature to generate attribute lists should be combined with a qualitative investigation to identify situation specific items. For example, it can be seen that both the New Zealand and Queensland studies elicited attributes not common in the general destination image literature.

(TABLE V ABOUT HERE)

In terms of analysing the effectiveness of the two approaches, Table VI summarises the comparative (dis)advantages between the individual interviews and group settings. A key

advantage of the group settings was the greater efficiency in data collection. Coordinating the three groups drastically reduced the time involved by a significant margin. This is particularly advantageous for a researcher who is visiting the market of interest. For example, the personal interviews in the New Zealand study were arranged using a snowball sampling technique in a market over 200 kilometres away. The series of interviews took place over seven weeks, whereas the group settings were scheduled over one week. The group settings also provided increased anonymity for participants. This is because participants are more aware their information will be pooled than in a more personal individual interview. Also, the group setting provides an opportunity to include group discussion at the conclusion. Such a focus group approach was considered during the data analysis phase, when a disadvantage was evident.

(TABLE V ABOUT HERE)

There was a limited capacity for the researcher to either clarify unclear issues since the data was not viewed until the meeting was over. For example, two participants used the statement 'day trips' to differentiate destinations. It is not known whether this statement was being used to indicate that opportunities for day trips at the destination is a salient attribute, or whether the two similar destinations were considered to be more suited to day trips than for short breaks. Likewise the use of laddering to uncover deeper meaning or values is precluded. Also, the group setting must also be carefully managed to limit distractions by other group members. For example, it was noticeable in each meeting that once the first participant had finished, the others quickly followed. This may be one of the reasons for a lower number of statements elicited. Another reason is that in a personal interview the researcher has the opportunity to ask if the participant can think of any further similarities/differences for each triad. A larger sample might therefore be required when using group settings.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of the study was to identify a list of salient destination image attributes for use in a structured questionnaire. The quantitative approach is the most common method of operationalising what has been the most researched construct in the tourism literature. The rationale for this approach is based on destination attractiveness being viewed as a function of the ability to provide attributes deemed determinant to travellers. However, questions have been raised about the validity of many attribute lists previously reported. As noted in reviews of the destination image literature (see Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Jenkins, 1999; Gallarza *et al.*, 2002), attributes used in quantitative studies are not necessarily salient to some groups of participants. The selection of attributes thus requires a careful balance between those used in previous studies and a qualitative investigation related to the travel context of interest. As observed by Pike (2002), less than half of the 100+ structured destination image studies between 1973-2000 had used qualitative methods at any stage. In this regard, the study sought to examine the efficacy of RGA in group settings. RGA, which is a qualitative technique underpinned by personal construct theory, appears ready made for an exploratory analysis of how travellers differentiate destinations. Although developed over 50 years ago, it is argued the technique has not been fully utilised in the tourism literature.

In this replication study, the results are compared to a previous application of the technique involving personal interviews in New Zealand for the same travel context. There were a number of similarities and differences in the results of the two variations of the technique. A considerable advantage of the group settings was the time saving, relative to conducting a series of individual personal interviews. However, with the same size sample the group settings generated only half the amount of information elicited in the personal interviews. It may be that the presence of the interviewer in a personal interview places more pressure on the participants to participate fully, whereas in the group setting participants are aware their self-complete form was virtually anonymous. It is acknowledged that George Kelly designed the structured RGA interview to

explore a person's construct system through conversation (Fransella & Bannister, 1977). One way of partly overcoming this limitation, as well adding a greater depth not available in the personal interviews, would be to end the group settings with a focus group discussion. Additionally, a larger sample for group settings might be required to reach data redundancy.

Nevertheless, the group setting approach succeeded in identifying of 14 attributes related to an Australia travel context that has been so far under reported in the tourism literature. The value of engaging in a qualitative investigation of attribute salience is demonstrated by the differences revealed between the overseas literature and the data elicited in the Australian and New Zealand short break travel contexts. It is suggested researchers certainly make use of the attributes deemed determinant in the extant literature, but screen these through focus groups to ensure travel context specificity. As suggested, the RGA group setting provides an opportunity for such a group discussion, in addition to eliciting information at an individual level.

It is proposed RGA applied in group settings offers destination image researchers an efficient and effective exploratory method for the development of structured questionnaires. As shown in Table V, a number of attributes were generated that were not a feature of the lists generated in New Zealand short break study or in the determinant literature. All three sets of attributes can be trialled in a structured questionnaire relating to destination image in the travel context of interest.

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Table I – Applications of RGA

Topic	Author
Bread	Hersleth *et al.* (2005)
Fruit	Jaeger *et al.* (2005)
Museums	Caldwell & Coshall (2002)
God	Preston & Viney (1986)
Management training needs	Honey (1979)
Personnel management as a career option	Tyson (1979)
Retail store attributes	Mitchell & Kiral (1999)
Information system attributes	Whyte & Bytheway (1996)
Software quality	Wilson & Hall (1998)
Technology	Frewer *et al.* (1998)
Theatrical character development	Cruise & Sewell (2000)
Managerial jobs	Smith (1980)
Counselling	Jankowicz & Cooper (1982)
Organisational behaviour	Jankowicz (1987)

Table II – Destination image studies using RGA

Topic	Author
Seaside resorts	Riley & Palmer (1975)
Countryside locations	Palmer (1978)
Differences between images of destinations pre and post travel	Pearce (1982)
Analysis of a destination's image through holiday snapshots	Botterill & Crompton (1987)
Images held of Austria by British tourists	Embacher & Buttle (1989)
Images of Japan	Botterill (1989)
Domestic destinations in Australia	Walmsley & Jenkins (1993), Young (1995)
Short break destinations in New Zealand	Pike (2003)

Table III – Unaided top of mind awareness short break destinations

Region	Frequency	Valid Percent
Sunshine Coast	231	45.1%
Gold Coast	96	18.8%
Northern New South Wales	57	11.1%
Fraser Coast	33	6.4%
Darling Downs	20	3.9%
Brisbane/Moreton Bay islands	17	3.3%
Other	58	11.4%
Missing	11	
Total	**523**	

Source: Pike (2006)

Table IV – Comparison of group and individual applications

	Group application	Previous study
Sample size	24	25
Travel context	Short break holidays by car	Short break holidays by car
Number of elements	9	9
Total number of statements elicited	277	567
Mean number of triads used per participant	11	11
Mean number of statements per participant	12	23
Number of attributes themes generated	14	17

Table V - Comparison of attribute categories

	A	B	C
	Group settings	**New Zealand study**	**Literature-Determinant**
The beach	1	3	
Not touristy	2	6	
Nature	3	7	1
Relaxed and laid back	4		7
Places for eating and drinking	5	17	11
Unique local culture	6		2
Suitable accommodation	7	15	9
In the country	8		
Surfing	9		
Family destination	10		
Marine life	11		
Good climate	12	5	4
Upmarket	13		
Shopping	14	16	15
Lots to do		1	8
Within a comfortable drive		2	
Water sports		4	
Fishing		8	
Close to other destinations		9	
Walking tracks		10	
Snow sports		11	
Adventure activities		12	
Friendly locals		13	6
Wineries		14	
Cost/value			3
Infrastructure			5
Sports activities			10
Nightlife/entertainment			13
Getting there/getting around			14
History/historical sites			12

Source: Adapted from Pike (2002, 2003)

Table VI – Comparative (Dis)Advantages of group settings and individual interviews

	Individual interviews	Group settings
Advantages	• Increased number of statements elicited • Opportunity for laddering • Opportunity for clarification by researcher • No distractions form other participants • Smaller sample required	• Efficiency in data collection time • Potential use as a structured focus group • Increased participant anonymity
Disadvantages	• Increased data collection time • Less participant anonymity	• Lower number of statements elicited • Limited ability to clarify ambiguous statements • Lack of ability for laddering • Potential distractions from other participants resulting in less data • Larger sample required